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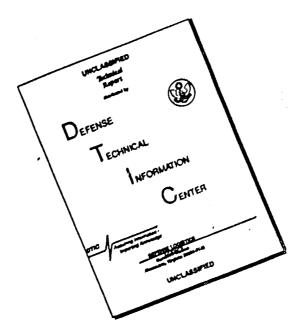
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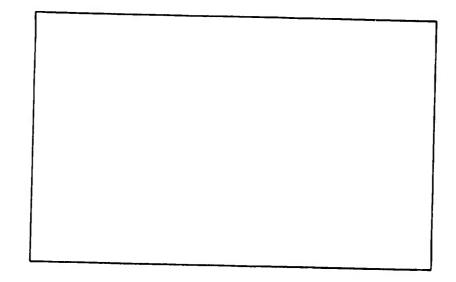


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SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING

WRIGHT-PATTERSON AIR FORCE BASE, OHIO

EFFECT OF VIBRATION ON HEAT TRANSFER FROM
CYLINDERS IN FREE CONVECTION

GA/ME/62-4 Robert M. Russ

EFFECT OF VIBRATION ON HEAT TRANSFER FROM CYLINDERS IN FREE CONVECTION

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the School of Engineering of the Air Force Institute of Technology

Air University
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science

Ву

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1/Lt

USAF

Graduate Astronautics

August 1962

Preface

The purpose of this study was to investigate a small region in heat transfer. In addition to obtaining the results outlined on the following pages, considerable experience was gained in the fields of instrumentation, research, and technical reporting. However, it should be noted that the areas in description of equipment and analysis of preliminary studies and calculations are too detailed for the majority of readers. These detailed descriptions were included to aid anyone in extending this investigation, and only the general sections of the above need be read.

I wish to express my appreciation to the entire Mechanical Engineering Department for their assistance and interest in this investigation. I wish to express special appreciation to Professor Milton E. Franke, thesis advisor; Dr. Andrew J. Shine, head of the department; and Mr. William Baker and Mr. Frank Jarvis, lab technicans. Special appreciation is extended to Captain Richard W. Hilland for his assistance in obtaining the interferographs for this study. I also wish to express my appreciation to my wife, Carol, for her patience, encouragement, and help in preparing this manuscript; to my children, who were forced to silence without understanding.

Robert M. Russ

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List of Symbols

- A Lateral surface area of test cylinder in.
- A Cross section area of support rod in?
- E Voltage across circuit volts
- Gr Grashof number $(d^{3}\rho^{2}g\Delta T/\mu^{2})_{f}$ dimensionless
- H Double amplitude of vibration in.
- I Current throughout circuit amperes
- I Vibration intensity (af) cyc./sec. in.
- L Length of test cylinder in.
- Nu_{s} Static Nusselt number dimensionless
- ${\tt Nu}_{\star\star}$ Vibrational Nusselt number dimensionless
- Pr Prandlt number $(c_p \mu/k)_f$ dimensionless
- Q_{C} Heat loss due to convection watts
- Q_D Heat loss due to conduction watts
- \mathbf{Q}_{L} Heat loss in lead wires watts
- Q_{M} Heat loss in meters watts
- Q_{R} Heat loss due to radiation watts
- Q_m Total power in circuit watts
- R Resistance ohms
- Re Reynolds number (vd/>) dimensionless
- $\mathrm{Re}_{\mathbf{v}}$ Reynolds number of vibration (4afd/144 $\vartheta_{\mathbf{f}}$) dimensionless
- T_a Ambient temperature ^OF
- T_{ra} Ambient temperature OR
- T_{rw} Surface temperature of cylinder ${}^{O}R$
- Tw Surface temperature of cylinder OF
- a Amplitude of vibration in.

- Specfic heat of air based on an average temperature between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment BTU/lbm of
- d Diameter of test cylinder in.
- f Frequency of vibration cyc./sec.
- h Heat transfer coefficient BTU/hr ft^{2 o}F
- k Thermal conductivity BTU/hr ft OF
- Thermal conductivity of air based on an average temperature between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment BTU/hr ft F
- v Velocity ft/sec.
- β Coefficient of volumetric expansion OR-1
- ΔT Temperature difference between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment $^{\rm O}F$
- $\Delta\Theta$ Temperature difference between two thermocouples located on the surface of a support rod to determine conduction losses $^{\circ}F$
- ϵ Emissivity dimensionless
- $\mu_{\rm f}$ Dynamic viscosity of air based on an average temperature between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment lbm/sec ft
- Kinematic viscosity of air based on an average temperature between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment ft²/sec
- Pf Density of air based on an average temperature between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment lbm/ft
- Stefan-Boltzman constant 0.1713 x 10⁻⁸ BTU/ft² hr OR

Abstract

A number of investigations have been conducted with horizontal cylinders in free convection to determine the effect of vibration on the heat transfer rate. This study was a continuation using higher vibration intensities (product of amplitude and frequency). Also, an attempt was made to correlate the changes in the heat transfer rate with that of forced convection.

The investigation was conducted with three different size cylinders vibrated transversly in air. The diameters of the cylinders were 3/4, 1/4, and 0.085 inches. The investigation was conducted over a frequency range of 0 to 130 cps, and an amplitude range of 0 to 0.165 inches. The surface temperature of the cylinders was varied over a range of 125 to 167 °F.

Results showed that the effect of vibration on the heat transfer rate for a particular cylinder is a function only of the vibration intensity, and that the heat transfer rate is increased over 300% at high vibration intensities. Also, from an interferometer study, the boundary layer is quite complex and goes through several transitions as the vibration intensity is increased. The boundary layer does appear similar to that of forced convection at vibration intensities in excess of 12 inches/second.

EFFECT OF VIBRATION ON HEAT TRANSFER FROM CYLINDERS IN FREE CONVECTION

GA/ME/62-4

I. Introduction

Purpose of the Investigation

Because of the presence of vibration in missile and space systems, it has become essential to understand and predict the influence of vibration on the heat transfer rate from various surfaces. It is important to know where the influence of vibration occurs and to what extent it occurs. It is also important to understand what mechanisms are involved.

The purpose of this investigation was to study the effects of transverse vibrations on the heat transfer rate from heated horizontal cylinders in free convection. This purpose entails three objectives: first, to determine the behavior of the heat transfer rate as vibration intensity is increased for various diameter cylinders and different cylinder surface temperatures; second, to observe the boundary layer of the above phenomenon by means of a Mach-Zehnder interferometer; third, to establish a correlation between these results and those of previous investigations.

Past Studies

Heat transfer rates for heated stationary cylinders have been determined by a number of people, and the results have been averaged by McAdams with recommended values. McAdams plotted these values for horizontal cylinders in both free

and forced convection where the fluid was passed normal to the cylinder in forced convection (Ref 1:176 & 259). The free convection curve provided a starting point for this investigation. The forced convection curve was used to compare free convection under the influence of vibration with that of forced convection.

In 1957, Shine conducted an investigation into the effects of transverse vibration on the heat transfer rate from a heated vertical plate. He concluded that: (1) the vibration intensity (product of amplitude and frequency) had little or no effect on the heat transfer rate below 1 in./sec.; (2) no relationship existed between the heat transfer coefficient and the position of the heated plate in its cycle; (3) the product of vibration intensity was a useful parameter in describing the effect of vibration on the heat transfer rate; (4) there was no orderly variation in the boundary layer thickness as the plate vibrated (Ref 2:56).

Teleki conducted an investigation of the influence of mechanical vibration on the rate of heat transfer from a horizontal cylinder. He concluded that: (1) the heat transfer coefficient increased as much as 200% with intense vibration; (2) the increase was a function of only one parameter, namely, the project of amplitude and frequency (Ref 3:39).

In 1960, Eisele conducted a study of free convection heat transfer from vibrating cylinders. He determined that:

(1) the increase in the heat transfer coefficient was a functio only of the vibration intensity; (2) waviness in the boundary

layer occurred only at vibration intensities considerably higher than the amplitude-frequency product at which a noticeable change in the heat transfer rate was first observed; (3) for small tubes and wires vibrating at intensities greater than 3.5 in./sec., the boundary layer stretches to enclose the vibratory motion (Ref 4:26).

James, in 1961, investigated vibration intensities up to 7 in./sec. James concluded that: (1) the diameter of the cylinder influences the per cent increase in the heat transfer rate; (2) the temperature difference also influences the heat transfer rate; (3) the effect of temperature difference decreased as the vibration intensity increased (Ref 5:17).

In 1961, an investigation was made by Deaver and associates to determine the effect of low frequency oscillations of relatively large amplitudes on the heat transfer rate from a small horizontal wire to water. The conclusions were:

(1) as the Reynolds number of vibration was increased the corresponding Nusselt number was independent of the Grashof-Prandtl number; (2) three regions existed of free, mixed, and forced convection; (3) these regions can be expressed by empirical equations; (4) at high vibrations the effect of vibration on the heat transfer rate agreed well with that of forced convection (Ref 6:4).

Present Study

This study was undertaken to extend and correlate the preceding investigations. Three different size cylinders

of diameters 3/4, 1/4, and 0.085 inches were heated and vibrated transversely in air. The heat transfer coefficients were obtained by experimentally measuring the heat loss through convection. These parameters were converted into Nusselt numbers and plotted against corresponding Reynolds numbers of vibration. The experimental values obtained along with the interferographs were then used to explain and predict the influence of vibration on the heat transfer rate.

II. <u>Description</u> of <u>Equipment</u>

The experimental test apparatus consisted of three test cylinders, an interferometer, a zirconium light source and a spark light source, a camera, a resonant beam assembly, a power control panel, and various measuring devices. An overhead view of the test area, test cylinder, and various equipment is shown in Figure 1.

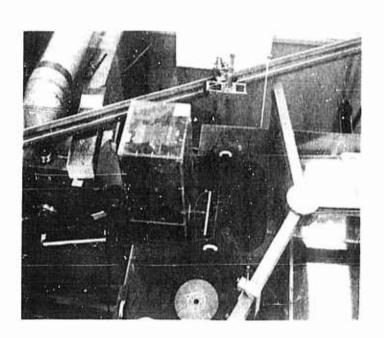
The Test Cylinders

Three test cylinders 10 inches long with diameters of 3/4, 1/4, and 0.085 inches were used. The two larger cylinders were made from 24-ST aluminum, and the 0.085 inch cylinder was made of stainless steel.

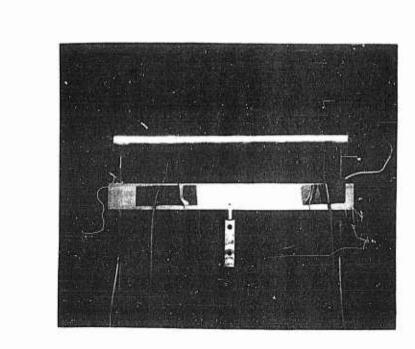
The 3/4 inch Cylinder. The 3/4 inch test cylinder was manufactured to accommodate an electric heater, thermocouples, and support rods. The cylinder, shown in Figure 2, had a machined and polished surface. A 5/16 inch hole was drilled through the entire length to provide space for the electric heater.

The heater consisted of 14 feet of #30 gauge nichrome wire wrapped around a 10 inch long ceramic tube. Sauerisen cement, with low electrical conductivity, but a high thermal conductivity, was used to insulate the heater from the cylinder. The nichrome wire was connected to 16 strands of #30 AWG copper cable. The cable was connected to two Powerstats which controlled the voltage and current supplied to the heater.

Two iron-constantan thermocouples were mounted in two



OVERHEAD VIEW OF TEST AREA FIGURE 1



3/4 inch TEST CYLINDER FIGURE 2

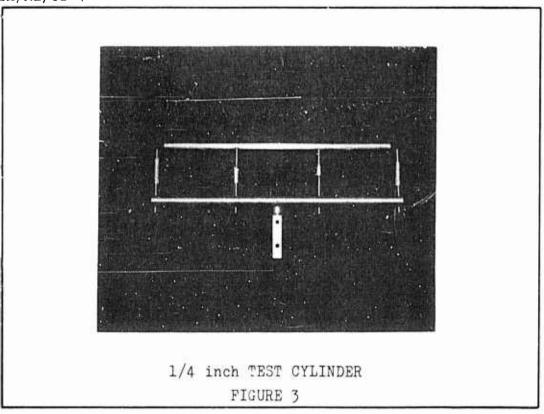
holes drilled radially in the cylinder. The thermocouple leads entered the cylinder through holes drilled axially in both ends, then passed into the radial holes where the junctions were located. The position of these thermocouples is shown in Figures 26 and 27.

Allen screws, as shown in Figures 26 and 27, provided a means of changing the position of the cylinder in the test area. This was necessary so that accurate alignment of the cylinder with the interferometer could be obtained without moving the interferometer.

During the investigation the Sauerisen cement failed to provide a firm attachment between the inner cylinder wall and the heater. This failure resulted in rotational and longitudinal movement of the heater, thus producing fatigue failure of the heater. The movement of the heater element was eliminated by placing caps on each end of the cylinder. The caps were made from phenolic which reduced the heat transfer from the ends of the cylinder.

Figures 26 and 27 of Appendix C show an assembly drawing and parts breakdown drawing of the 3/4 inch test cylinder.

The 1/4 inch Cylinder. The 1/4 inch test cylinder was manufactured to accommodate a single heater wire, external thermocouples, and support rods. This cylinder is shown in Figure 3 and it had a machined and polished surface. A 1/8 inch hole was drilled through the length of the cylinder to provide space for an insulated heater.



The heater consisted of 10 inches of #30 gauge nichrome wire which was placed inside a 1/8 inch ceramic tube. Copper lead wires were brought through the phenolic end caps and silver soldered to the nichrome wire. The copper lead wires were connected to the Powerstats to provide current and voltage to the single wire heater.

End caps were used to minimize the heat transfer from the ends of the cylinder and to provide support for the copper lead cables. The two interior support rods were used to prevent the thin walled cylinder from rotating and establishing separate modes of vibration between the ends of the cylinder.

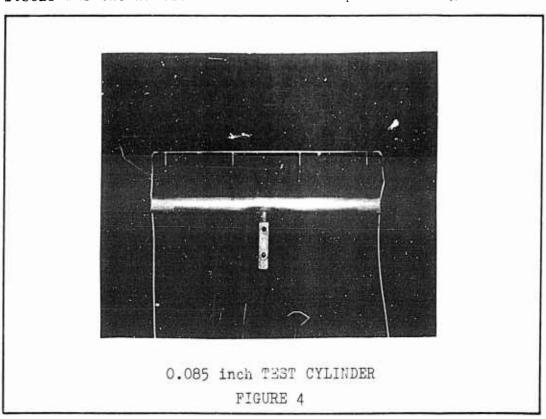
Iron-constantan thermocouples were positioned as shown in Figure 3 to measure the cylinder wall temperature.

Allen screws provided a means of adjusting the position of

the cylinder with respect to the interferometer, so that an accurate alignment could be made without moving the interferometer.

Figures 28 and 29 of Appendix C show an assembly drawing and parts breakdown drawing of the 1/4 inch test cylinder.

The 0.085 inch Cylinder. The 0.085 inch cylinder shown in Figures 4, 30, and 31 was constructed so that the cylinder itself was the heater when current was passed through it.



The electric lead wires were silver soldered on the ends of the stainless steel cylinder.

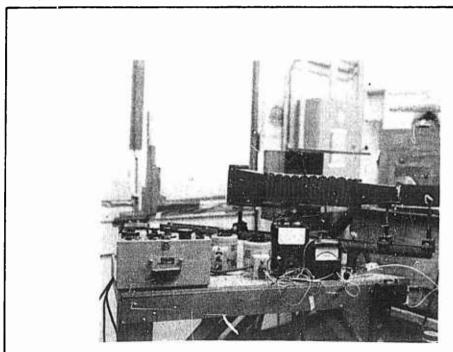
Four small stainless steel rods were soldered on the cylinder to act as support rods. The two interior rods prevented the cylinder from establishing undesirable modes of vibration between the ends of the cylinder.

Thermocouples were mounted on the exterior surface by soldering the junction points to the surface of the cylinder. Allen screws, as shown in Figures 30 and 31 provided a means of alignment of the cylinder with the interferometer.

Power Control Panel

The power control panel is shown in Figure 5. Two

Powerstat voltage regulators type-140 were used to control
the power to the heater of the cylinders. One Powerstat



POWER CONTROL PANEL-POTENTIOMETER-CAMERA FIGURE 5

provided a coarse adjustment of the power, while the other provided a fine adjustment. Three type 20-135 cps Westinghouse voltmeters and three type 20-135 cps Westinghouse ammeters were used to measure the voltage and current in the circuit.

A voltmeter with a range of 0 to 30 volts and an ammeter range of 0 to 1 ampere was used in the 3/4 inch cylinder study.

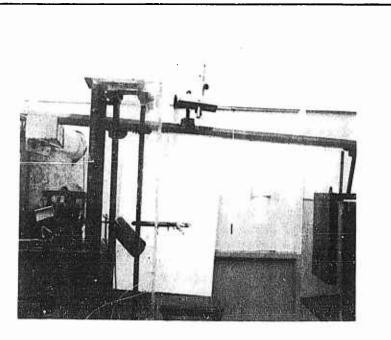
For the 1/4 inch cylinder the voltmeter range was from 0 to 20 volts and the ammeter range from 0 to 2 amperes. The small 0.085 inch cylinder required a voltmeter range from 0 to 2 volts and a ammeter range from 0 to 5 amperes.

Temperature Measurement

A Leeds and Northrup potentiometer was used to measure the temperature of the surface of the cylinder. The instrument could read to 0.005 millivolts or approximately 1/3 of a $^{\rm O}F$. An ice bath was provided for the thermocouples so that the measurement was based on a 32 $^{\rm O}F$ reference.

Vibration Apparatus

General. The primary apparatus used in vibrating the various cylinders was a vibrator excitor power supply, a vibrator motor, and a resonant beam assembly. These items are shown in Figure 6.



RESONANT BEAM-VIBRATOR MOTOR-TELEMICROSCOPE FIGURE 6

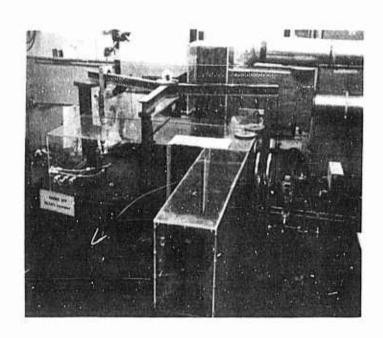
The natural frequency of the resonant beam was controlled by moving two spacers an equal distance between two 1/2 by 4 inch parallel steel bars, 40 inches long and spaced four inches apart. The natural frequency of the beam was found by changing the frequency on the vibrator excitor power supply until resonance occurred. The amplitude of vibration was controlled by adjusting the power supplied to the vibrator excitor. Two vibrator excitors were employed. The second excitor was used to extend the range of the vibration intensity.

Frequency Measurement. The frequency of the vibrator excitor power supply was controlled by adjusting a dial on the excitor power supply panel. The frequency was checked periodically with a strobotac.

Amplitude Measurement. A Gaertner Scientific Corporation Telemicroscope was used to measure the amplitude of vibration. The telemicroscope was mounted on a transversing mechanism as shown in Figure 6. The amplitude could be read to within a thousandth of an inch.

Boundary Layer Apparatus

Mach-Zehnder Interferometer. The interferometer used in this study is depicted schematically in Figure 25 of Appendix C, and is shown in Figure 7. The test section of the interferometer was 19 inches long and the optical parts were 6 inches in diameter. It was suspended by three coil springs from a steel frame which was supported by a hydraulic jack. The jack, mounted on three wheels, provided mobility and



INTERFEROMETER & LIGHT SOURCES
FIGURE 7

height adjustment. The springs allowed leveling of the instrument, and also damped out vibrations. The entire optical system was incased in plexiglass.

<u>Light Sources</u>. A zirconium lamp and a spark lamp were used as the light sources in the interferometer study, Figure 7. The zirconium lamp was used to obtain fine adjustment of the interferometer. The spark lamp provided the light to photograph the instantaneous boundary layer during vibration.

Camera. A Graflex camera, employing type 44 polariod film, was used to record the interferographs. Figure 25 shows schematically the location of the camera, while Figure 5 is a photograph of the camera assembly.

III. Experimental Procedure

General Vibratory Procedure

In all, 54 vibration tests were conducted to determine the heat transfer rate from the test cylinders. Each test consisted of one to fifteen runs, or data points. One power setting was used for each test. Tests were made at three different settings for each cylinder. The power setting that was chosen corresponded to ΔT increments of 50, 70, and 90 °F.. These ΔT values were for the non-vibratory condition which was the starting point in each test. As soon as the temperature of the surface of the cylinder became constant the static data were recorded and the vibratory runs begun.

The frequency during any one test was held constant.

Between the different tests the frequency was varied from

55 cps to 130 cps. The frequency which provided the largest
vibration intensity was found to be 115 cps for the small
vibration excitor and 84 cps for the larger excitor. The

frequency as set on the power excitor panel was checked
periodically with a strobotac and found to agree within 3 cps
of the strobotac reading. The error between the two was less
than 4%.

The amplitude was varied between each run by adjusting the power supplied to the resonant beam excitor. The amplitude was measured by means of a telemicroscope. A small line on the cylinder assembly which reflected light was sighted through the telemicroscope. This small line was perpendicular

to the direction of motion. When the cylinders were subjected to vibration, this line became a bright, distinct band whose width equalled the double amplitude of vibration. Four readings of the width of the band were recorded and the average value used. Small corrections to the double amplitude were made to account for the width of the line. The maximum deviation from the average was 0.01 inches and resulted in an error of less than 8%.

In order to make an accurate comparison of runs, the total power was held constant during any one test. This permitted a comparison of runs, regardless of conditions, with minimum error. Slight variations in the total power between similiar tests were recorded, but these variations were within 4% of each other. The following data were recorded for each run:

- 1. Ambient temperature of test environment
- 2. Voltage across system
- 3. Current in circuit
- 4. Temperature of the surface of the cylinder
- 5. Frequency of vibration
- 6. Double amplitude of vibration

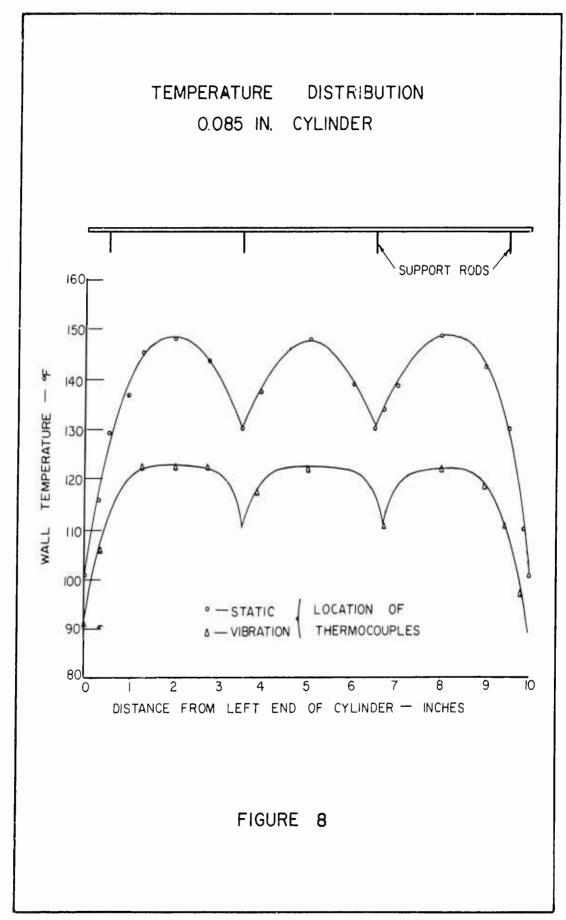
Specific Vibratory Procedure

3/4 inch Cylinder. The cylinder surface temperature required such long periods to stabilize that difficulty was encountered in obtaining data points. This long period of stabilization was primarily caused by the large energy capacity due to the thickness of the cylinder wall. This

prolonged period produced fatigue failure of heaters, thermocouples, and vibration apparatus at high vibration intensities. No method was developed to obtain experimental data at vibration intensities above 8.5 inches/second. The surface temperature for the thick walled cylinder was constant along the cylinder surface. Thermocouple readings for two positions on the cylinder were within 1/3 OF of each other.

1/4 inch Cylinder. The stabilization time for the 1/4 inch cylinder was less than 7 minutes for any particular vibration intensity. This permitted an investigation within the limits of the vibration apparatus. The surface temperature of the 1/4 inch cylinder varied up to 3 °F over the entire length. An average value of four thermocouples, located at various positions on the surface, was used as the surface temperature. One thermocouple was placed near the outside support rod. Another was positioned near an interior support rod. The remaining two thermocouples were located in the center between the support rods.

0.085 inch Cylinder. The stabilization time for the 0.085 inch cylinder was less than 2 minutes. Therefore, experimental data were easy to obtain. The surface temperature was found to vary quite significantly over the length of the cylinder. This variation occurred both statically and during vibration. A typical profile of the temperature is shown in Figure 8 for both cases. Nineteen thermocouples were located along the surface of the cylinder to determine the temperature distribution. During vibration a number of thermocouples



failed, and the sufficient number of thermocouples in the static profile suggested a similiar profile in the vibratory case. The average temperature was determined from the profile by computing the area under the curve and dividing this area by the length of the cylinder. In four static and vibration runs, one particular thermocouple reading was the same as the average temperature. This thermocouple was then used as the representative average surface temperature for the remaining tests.

Boundary Layer Procedure

The zirconium lamp was used to provide a constant illumination so that an infinite fringe adjustment of the interferometer could be made. Once vibration had begun and stabilization had been reached, the zirconium lamp was removed and a spark lamp was employed to provide a light that would allow a photograph of the instantaneous boundary layer to be taken. In the majority of cases, the infinite fringe was lost by the above procedure because of the stabilization time. To overcome this problem, the interferographs were taken within 20 seconds after vibration had begun.

The parameters recorded during the boundary layer interferograph investigation were:

- 1. Voltage across system
- 2. Current in circuit
- 3. Frequency of vibration
- 4. Double amplitude of vibration

The location of the cylinder during vibration was

determined by means of a reference wire, which appears in each interferograph. The direction of motion of the cylinder in each interferograph was not determined, but from the boundary layer the direction could be presumed.

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IV. Calculation Procedure

Previous studies revealed that the use of an interferometer to determine the heat transfer rate at high vibration
intensities was impractical due to the long stabilization
periods involved and a very complex fringe pattern in the
boundary layer. Therefore, the heat transfer rate was
evaluated by determining the heat loss through convection
from the total power in the circuit. This heat loss is found
from the equation:

$$Q_{C} = Q_{T} - Q_{D} - Q_{R} - Q_{L} - Q_{M}$$
 (1)

where the above quantities refer to convection, total, conduction, radiation, lead wires, and meter heat losses respectively.

The total power, $\textbf{Q}_{T}\text{,}$ was determined from the equation:

$$Q_{T} = EI \tag{2}$$

The conduction losses through the support rods where determined from the equation:

$$Q_{D} = 0.0334 \Delta \theta \tag{3}$$

and

$$Q_{D} = 0.0128 \Delta \theta \tag{4}$$

where equation (3) refers to the 1/4 inch diameter cylinder and (4) to the 0.085 inch cylinder. Complete development of the above equations is contained in Appendix B along with Figures 20 and 21 to determine the values of $\Delta\theta$.

The radiation losses were determined from the equation:

$$Q_{R} = 0.2931 \sigma \epsilon A (T_{rw}^{4} - T_{ra}^{4})$$
 (5)

Appendix B contains values of the emissivity and the percentage of power loss from radiation. Figures 22, 23, and 24 contain curves to determine the radiation loss directly for the three test cylinders.

The line and meter losses were determined from the equation:

$$Q_{I} \text{ or } Q_{M} = I^{2}R \tag{6}$$

Values of the resistance for each case along with the percentage of the total power are contained in Appendix B under the sections titled "Line Losses" and "Meter Losses".

From $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{C}}$ the heat transfer rate, defined in non-dimensional form, was obtained from the equation:

$$Nu_{v} = hd/k_{f} = 3.412 Q_{C}/\pi Lk_{f}\Delta T$$
 (7)

or for the three cylinders, each 10 inches in length:

$$Nu_{v} = 1.3 Q_{C}/k_{\rho}\Delta T$$
 (8)

Where 3.412 and 1.3 are conversion factors.

The vibration parameter was defined by the Reynolds number and the vibration intensity equations:

$$Re = vd/v$$
 (9)

and

$$I_v = af$$
 (10)

where the velocity (v) in equation (9) was replaced by the frequency (f) times the total distance traveled (4a) during one cycle. The resulting Reynolds number equation becomes:

where 144 is a conversion factor.

The $\mathrm{Nu}_{_{\boldsymbol{V}}},~\mathrm{Re}_{_{\boldsymbol{V}}},$ and $\mathrm{I}_{_{\boldsymbol{V}}}$ were the parameters used to present the influence of vibration on the heat transfer rate.

V. Discussion of Results

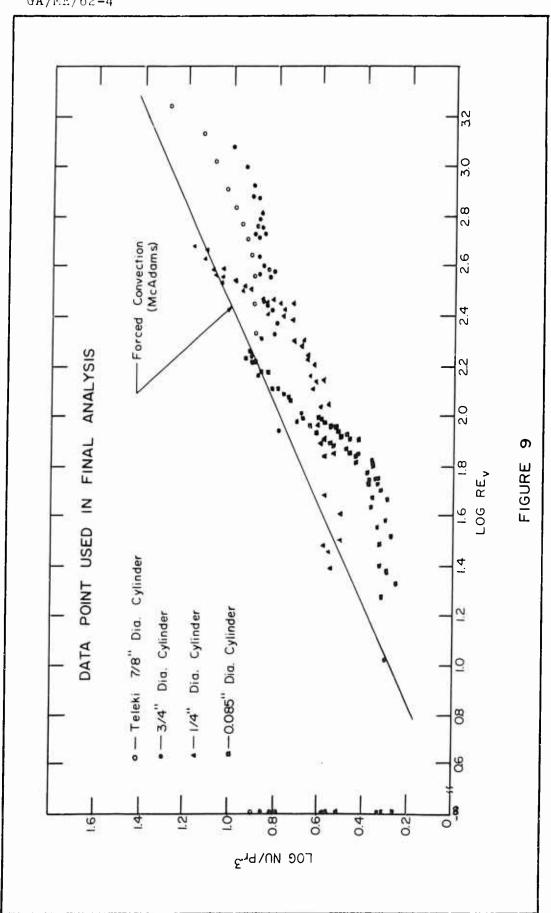
The experimental data for each run and the values of the Nusselt and Reynolds number of vibration are tabulated in Tables I, II, and III of Appendix E. Figures 9, 10, and 11 contain graphs of the Nu/Pr $^{\cdot 3}$ versus Re $_{v}$ for each test. A sample calculation showing the method of evaluating the Nusselt and Reynolds number of vibration is contained in Appendix D.

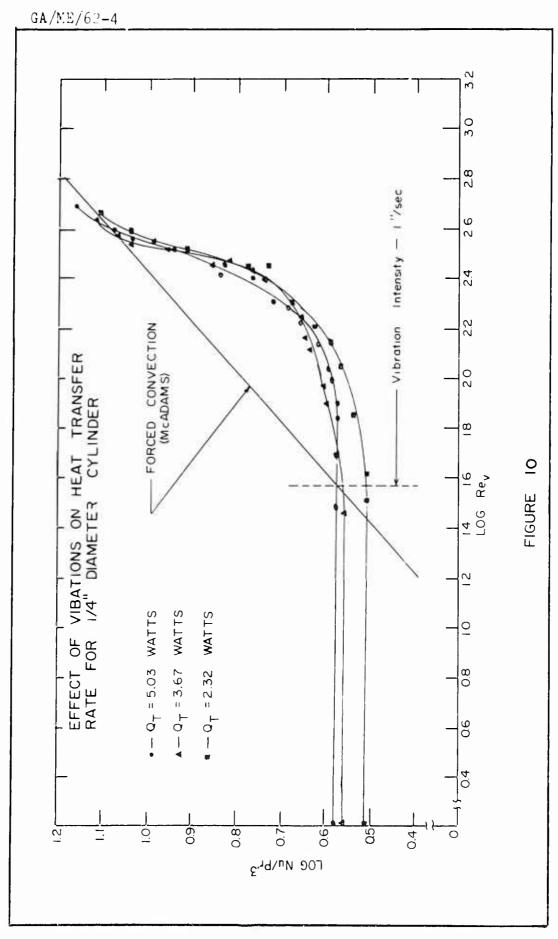
Figures 9, 10, 11, and 12 are plotted using a Re_v which is analogous to the vibration intensity. The two terms differ only by constants and the kinematic viscosity which varies only slightly over the temperature range of this investigation. The vibration intensity would shift the curves of Figures 9, 10, 11, and 12 to the left by a constant amount, but the slopes would remain the same. In the remaining portion of this report the vibration intensity is used to explain the influnce of vibration on the heat transfer rate.

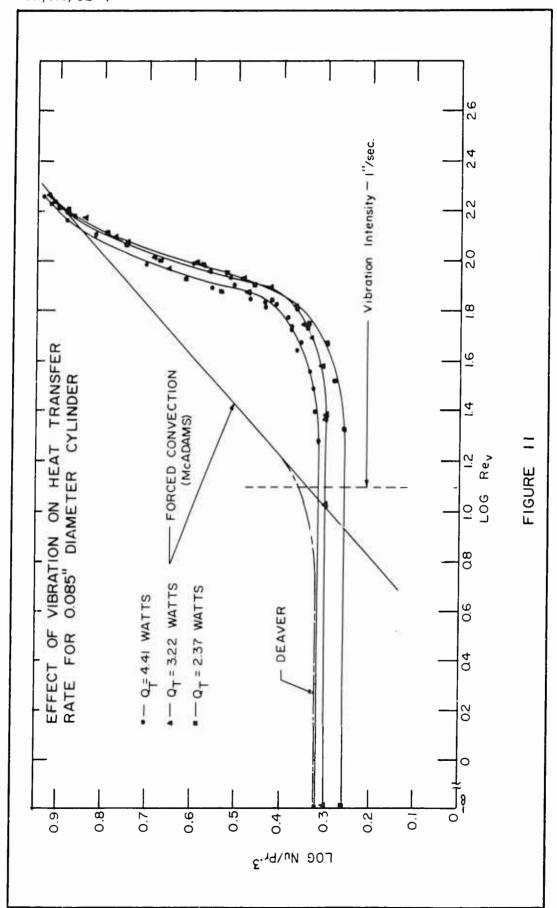
Experimental Results

In the investigation, the cylinders were heated to various surface temperatures, and the heat transfer rates for these static conditions were obtained. These values of the heat transfer rate are compared with McAdam's recommended curve for free convection which is shown in Figure 19 of Appendix B. In all cases the static values agreed with McAdams within \pm 10%.

The graphs, Figures 9, 10, and 11, of Nu/Pr³ versus Rev show that the heat transfer rate is increased considerably as







the vibration intensity is increased. The graphs show a gradual increase in the heat transfer rate after a vibration intensity of l in./sec. is exceeded. As the vibration intensity is increased further the change in the slope of the curves becomes relatively constant. Further increase in the vibration intensity past the second breaking point produces a decrease in the slope of the curves.

Effect of Diameter on the Heat Transfer Rate. The diameter size of the cylinder does produce a difference in the heat transfer rate as shown in Figure 9. However, the slope of the curves, Figures 10 and 11, is independent of the diameter. It appears from the curves that if the vibration intensity is increased considerably over the maximum values used in this investigation that the heat transfer rate will become independent of the diameter. This is based on the assumption that the curves will follow that of forced convection.

Effect of Temperature on the Heat Transfer Rate. The increments of temperature difference between the surface of the cylinder and the ambient environment produce a difference in the heat transfer rate as shown in Figures 9, 10, and 11. This difference in the heat transfer rate occurs at the static conditions and low vibration intensities. As the vibration intensity is increased this difference in the heat transfer rate dimishes, and the heat transfer rate becomes independent of the temperature difference above vibration intensities of 7 in./sec.

Effect of Vibration Intensity on the Heat Transfer Rate. The heat transfer rate was found to increase as much as 320% for the 1/4 inch cylinder and 350% for the 0.085 inch cylinder at vibration intensities in excess of 12 in./sec. These percentages were the highest values obtained in this investigation due to the limitations in vibration intensity. From Figures 9, 10, and 11 it appears that at high vibration intensities for a particular cylinder, the only parameter influencing the heat transfer rate is the vibration intensity.

The behavior of the heat transfer rate as the vibration intensity is increased is shown in Figures 9, 10, and 11. There appear to be four regions: first, the region where the heat transfer rate is unaffected by the vibration; second, a region of transition where the slope of the curves changes from a zero value to the maximum value; third, a region where the slope of the curves remains relatively constant; and fourth, a region where transition occurs again and the slope of the curves decreases to a smaller constant value. From the graphs it appears that the curves then tend to follow that of forced convection. The first transition occurs gradually as the vibration intensity is increased, while the second transition occurs more abruptly. No analysis was made to express the behavior of the heat transfer rate by means of empirical equations.

Boundary Layer Results

The boundary layer for one particular test is shown in

Figures 13, 14, 15, and 16. The sequence of interferographs is arranged for increasing vibration intensity. The location of the interferograph with respect to Nusselt and Reynolds number is shown in Figure 12. The per cent increase in the heat transfer rate is shown also in Figures 13, 14, 15, and 16.

Interferographs 1 and 2 show the unaffected region of vibration. The interferographs 3, 4, and 5 depict the first transition region. In 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 the region where the slope of the curve is a maximum is shown. Interferographs 12, 13, 14, and 15 show the second transition region. While the interferograph 16 shows the boundary layer at the point where the slope of the curve is reduced to a smaller constant value. From the sequence of interferographs it is evident that the mechanisms involved are quite complex. In the first region the boundary layer is relatively undisturbed by the vibration. As the vibration intensity increases the boundary layer is distorted and tends to flatten out, and it is apparent that free convection no longer exists. Further increase in the vibration intensity produces a fanning out of boundary layer with considerable turbulence. In the higher regions of vibration intensity the boundary layer becomes quite thin as in forced convection.

Figures 17 and 18 show the boundary layer for the 3/4 and 0.085 inch cylinder in the lower vibration intensity regions. Values of the Nusselt number ratio are also shown.

Correlation

The vibration intensity for a particular cylinder was found to be the only parameter affecting the heat transfer rate as observed by Shine, Teleki, Eisele, and James. Also, the critical vibration intensity, as defined by Shine, occurred at an approximate vibration intensity of 1 inch/sec. as shown in Figures 10 and 11.

Figure 9 shows data points obtained by Teleki with a 7/8 inch diameter cylinder. The general shape of the curve and the values of the points agree with the findings in this investigation. The per cent increase in the heat transfer rate was found to be higher than Teleki observed; but this is attributed to the higher vibration intensities, 15 in./sec. compared to 12 in./sec., used in this investigation.

Agreement with James was obtained with respect to the influence of the temperature increment on the heat transfer rate. At vibration intensities in excess of 7 in./sec. it was found that the temperature increments had little or no effect on the heat transfer rate. James also concluded that the rate of change in the heat transfer increases as smaller diameter cylinders are employed. From Figure 9 it appears that the curves will follow that of forced convection. If this is true, then the heat transfer rate will become independent of the diameter of the cylinder at high vibration intensities.

The findings of Deaver could not be correlated with this investigation. Four regions with complex boundary layers

were observed in this investigation, while Deaver observed only three regions of free, mixed, and forced convection.

Applying the empirical equations of Deaver to the 0.085 inch diameter cylinder, a smooth transition from free to forced convection is obtained as shown in Figure 11. The results of this investigation, as shown in Figure 11, undergo a more complex transition.

The attempt to correlate the influence of vibration on the heat transfer rate to that of forced convection proved unsatisfactory. This is shown in Figures 9, 10, and 11. However, it appears that at the high vibration intensities, the effect of vibration does correspond to that of forced convection, but the extension of the curves could not be obtained because of the limitations of the vibration apparatus.

VI. Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of this investigation of the effect of transverse vibrations on the heat transfer rate from heated horizontal cylinders in air lead to the following conclusions:

- 1. The diameter of the cylinder has an appreciable effect on the heat transfer rate.
- 2. The increments of temperature difference produce no appreciable change in the heat transfer rate at high vibration intensities.
- 3. The heat transfer rate for a given test cylinder is affected by only the vibration intensity.
- 4. The increase in the heat transfer rate exceeds 300% at high vibration intensities.
- 5. The behavior of the heat transfer rate as a function of the vibration intensity is quite complex and no simple analogy to that of forced convection exists for the range of this investigation.
- 6. The boundary layer changes considerably as the vibration intensity is increased, and approaches that observed in forced convection.

In the design of modern equipment it is important to be able to predict the influence of vibration on the heat transfer rate. It is recommended that even higher regions of vibration intensity be investigated to see if a correlation does exist between vibration and forced convection. Also, an environment

other than air should be investigated. The disagreement of this investigation with that of Deaver's might have resulted from the environment or technique used.

It is recommended that the design of the cylinders be similiar to the 1/4 inch diameter cylinder in this investigation or that used by Teleki (Ref 3:9). Also, at high vibration intensities the stabilization time becomes an important factor, and thin walled cylinders should be employed to minimize the stabilization time.

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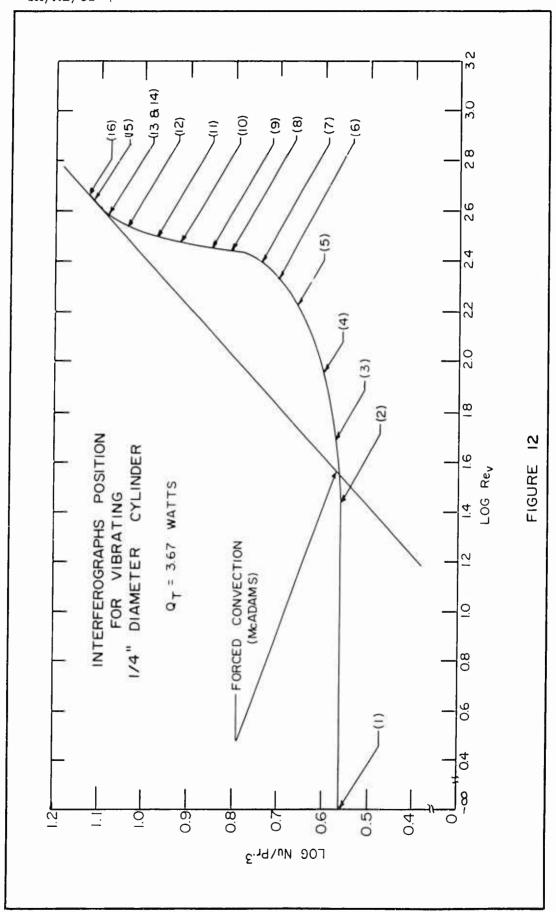
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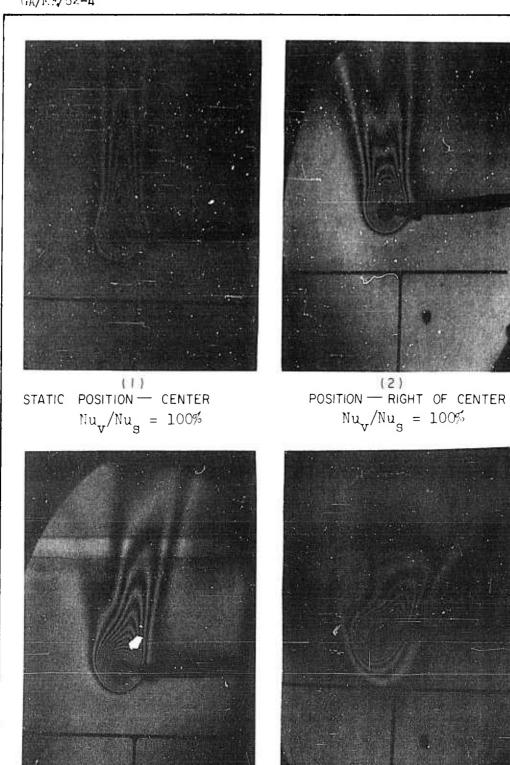
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APPENDIX A

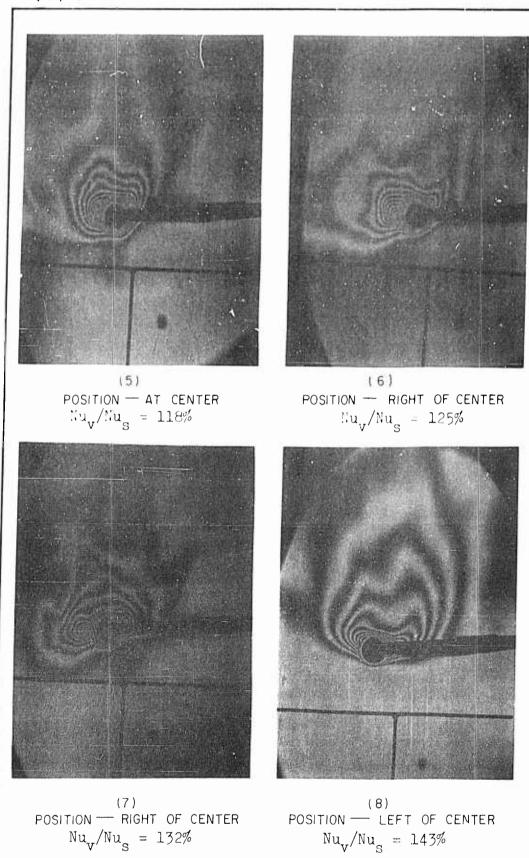
Interferographs

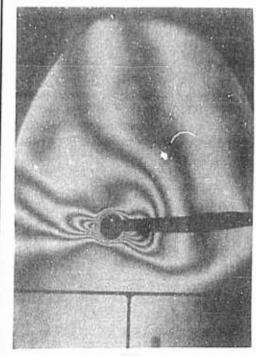




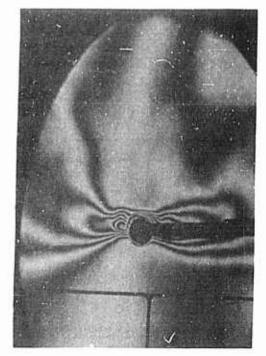
POSITION $\frac{(3)}{-}$ AT CENTER POSITION $\frac{(4)}{-}$ RIGHT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{v}/Nu_{s}} = 103.5\%$

FIGURE 13

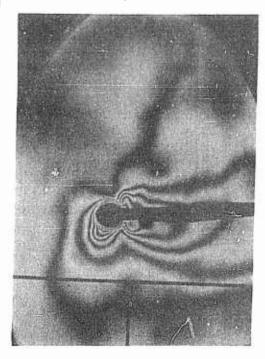




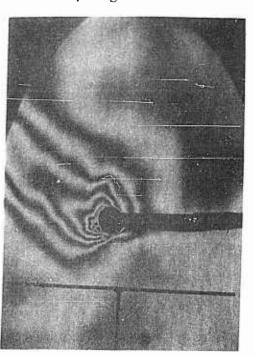
POSITION — AT CENTER $Nu_{V}/Nu_{S} = 151\%$



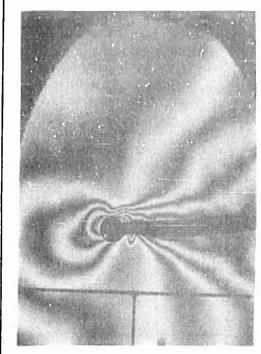
POSITION — RIGHT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{V}/Nu_{S}} = 164\%$



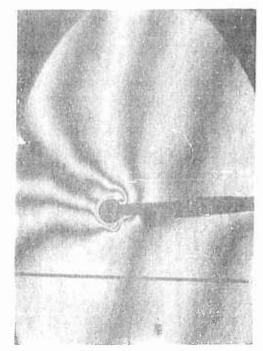
POSITION $\frac{(II)}{}$ LEFT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{v}/Nu_{s}} = 173\%$



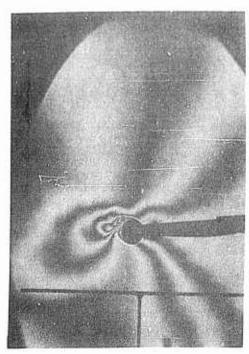
POSITION $\frac{(12)}{}$ RIGHT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{v}/Nu_{s}} = 186\%$



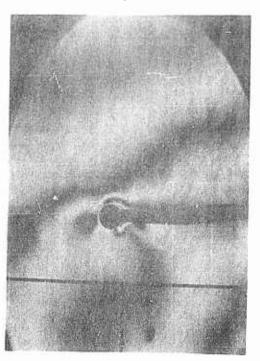
 $\begin{array}{c} (1\overline{3}\overline{)} \\ \text{POSITION} \stackrel{\longleftarrow}{---} \text{AT CENTER} \end{array}$ $Nu_{V}/Nu_{S} = 194\%$



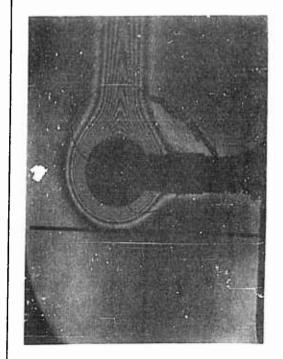
POSITION — LEFT OF CENTER $Nu_{V}/Nu_{S} = 194\%$



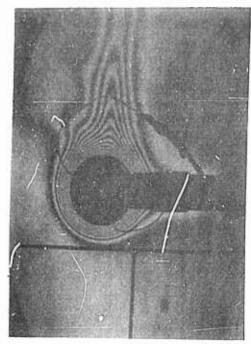
 $Nu_v/Nu_s = 199\%$



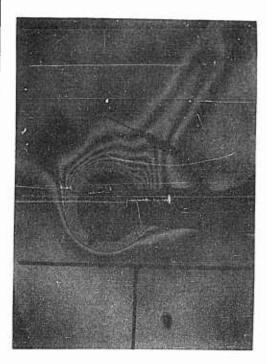
POSITION $\stackrel{(15)}{\longrightarrow}$ RIGHT OF CENTER POSITION $\stackrel{(16)}{\longrightarrow}$ LEFT OF CENTER Nu_/Nu_ = 199% Nu_y/Nu_ = 202% $Nu_v/Nu_s = 202\%$



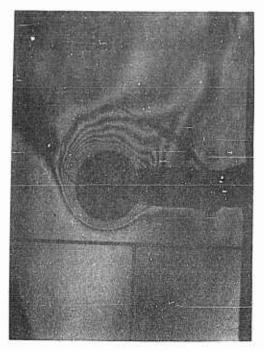
STATIC POSITION — AT CENTER $2u_v/3u_s = 100\%$



POSITION — LEFT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_v/Nu_s} = 104\%$



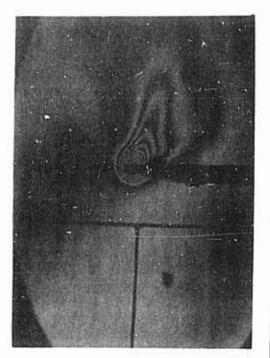
POSITION — RIGHT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{v}/\mathrm{Nu_{s}}} = 110\%$



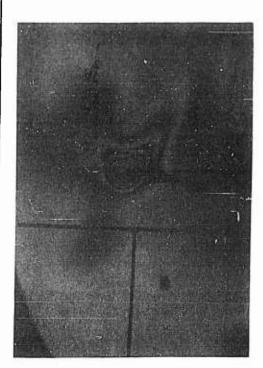
POSITION — RIGHT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{v}/Nu_{s}} = 114\%$



STATIC POSITION - AT CENTER $Nu_V/Nu_S = 100\%$



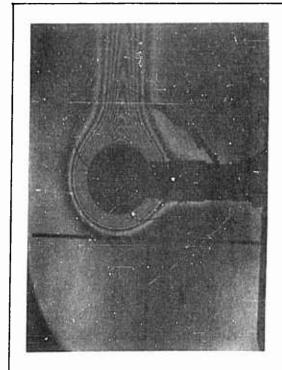
POSITION - LEFT OF CENTER $Nu_v/Nu_s = 106\%$



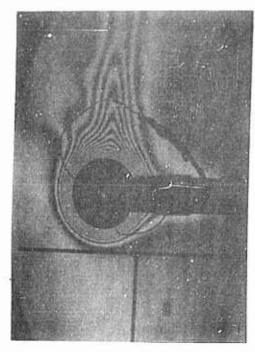
 $Nu_v/Nu_s = 118\%$



POSITION - RIGHT OF CENTER POSITION - LEFT OF CENTER $Nu_{V}/Nu_{S} = 130\%$



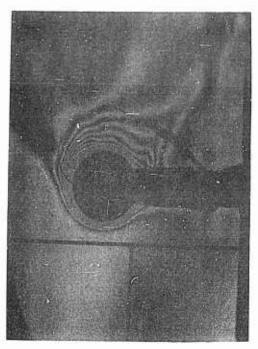
STATIC POSITION — AT CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_v/Nu_s} = 100\%$



POSITION — LEFT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_v/Nu_s} = 104\%$



POSITION — RIGHT OF CENTER $Nu_{v}/Nu_{s} = 110\%$



POSITION — RIGHT OF CENTER $\mathrm{Nu_{v}/Nu_{s}} = 114\%$

APPENDIX B

Analysis of Preliminary
Studies and Calculations

Wire Configuration

From previous work in this area it was found that at high vibration intensities the heater wires and thermocouple wires tend to fail due to fatigue. An investigation was conducted to determine the best size wire, type mount, and type of support necessary to reduce fatigue failure. Different size heater wires, lead cables, and thermocouple wires were mounted in various positions on a cylinder. Saurisen cement, aluminum paste, and silver solder were used to fix the wires to the surface of the cylinder. The cylinder was vibrated at intensities in excess of 7 in./sec. for a period of 45 minutes.

It was found that the smaller diameter heater and thermocouple wires resisted fatigue failure longer than larger diameter wires. Lead cables constructed from 16 to 19 strands of #18 to #20 AWG copper wire were found to resist fatigue failure longer than larger or smaller cables.

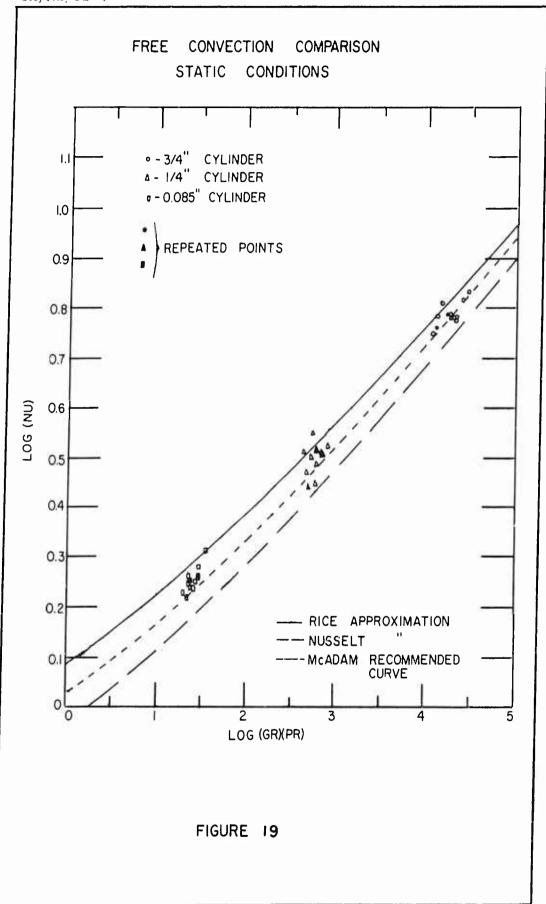
The Saurisen cement was found to harden into a brittle compound and break from the surface. Aluminum paste was found to be very satisfactory on the 3/4 and 1/4 inch cylinders. It was found that by soldering the thermocouples on the surface of the small stainless steel cylinder the failure rate was reduced to a negligible quantity.

Securing all wires and cables to the support rod eliminated the oscillation of the entire mass of the wires or cables from acting on the junction points. This is shown in Figures 2, 3, and 4.

Static Comparison

Prior to each run, the static values of the heat transfer rate were compared to existing data. The corresponding Nusselt number along with the Grashof-Prandlt number was determined for a ΔT increment and compared to the free convection curve recommended by McAdams. This comparison is shown in Figure 19. In all cases the calculated values agreed closely with McAdams and were within the zone of Nusselt's and Rice's experimental curves.

Static values, in some cases, were computed by means of the interferometer as done by Eisele (Ref 4). The values obtained in this manner were within 10% of those computed by the procedure in this report.



Analysis of Calculations

The heat loss through convection could be determined by two methods: first, by subtracting the radiation and the conduction losses from the power in the heater element, and second, by subtracting the line, meter, radiation, and conduction losses from the total power in the circuit. The second method was employed because of the difficulty in securing the lead wires of the voltmeter to the junction points of the heater element in the cylinder under high vibration intensities. However, the first method was employed statically to the 3/4 and 0.085 inch cylinder to check the heat loss by convection without having to account for the line and meter losses. The two methods at the static condition where within 7% of each other.

Conduction Losses

Conduction losses through the support rods where determined for the three cylinders by applying the equation:

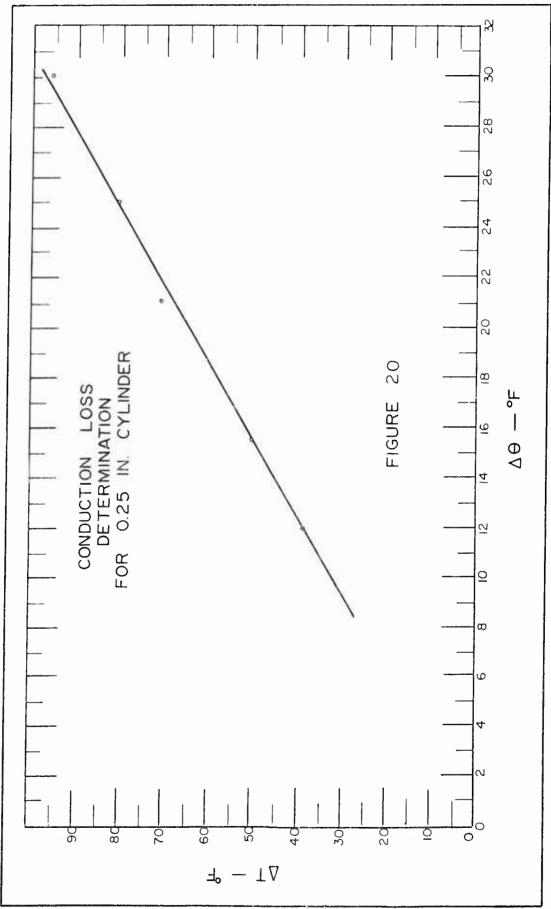
$$Q_{D} = kA_{c}\Delta\Theta/\Delta y \tag{11}$$

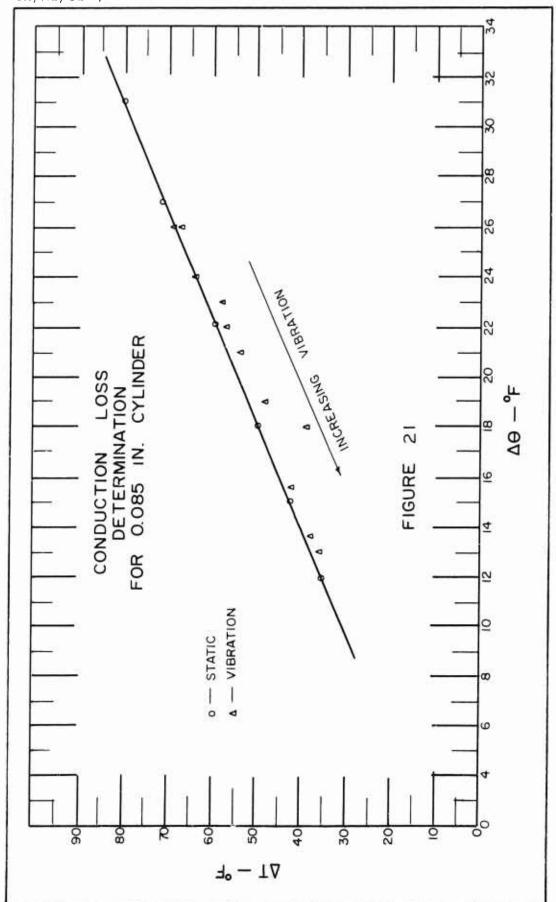
The thermal conductivities (k) were determined to be 0.134 BTU/ hr ft ^{O}F for the two phenolic supports on the 3/4 inch cylinder, and 16.7 BTU/hr ft ^{O}F for the stainless steel support rods (Ref 7:497). The quantities $\Delta\Theta$ and Δy where determined by placing one thermocouple at the support rod-cylinder junction and another approximately 1/4 inch away from the cylinder on the support rod. Various temperature

differences (AT) between the cylinder surface and the ambient environment were set, and the temperature difference ($\Delta \theta$) recorded. A plot of the findings is shown in Figures 20 and 21. Knowing the temperature difference (ΔT), the above charts can be entered to find A9. The 0.085 inch cylinder was vibrated to determine the effect of vibration on conduction through the support rods. A static temperature increment (AT) of 70°F was established, and increasing vibration intensities were employed. At the various vibration intensity levels the temperature increment 49 was recorded. The results of this study are shown in Figure 21. As the vibration intensity increased, the value of $\Delta \Theta$ decreased in the same manner as ΔT decreased. From this it was concluded that the vibration effects on conduction through the support rods corresponds directly to the difference between the surface temperature and ambient temperature. Therefore, in determining the conduction loss of a vibrating cylinder only the surface and ambient temperatures were required.

From the above study it was found that the conduction loss through the two phenolic support rods on the 3/4 inch cylinder was less than 1% of the total power. Therefore, conduction losses were assumed to be negligible for this cylinder. Since the thermal conductivity of phenolic is relatively small the conduction losses of the two outside supports on the 1/4 inch cylinder were also assumed to be negligible. The two middle support rods of stainless steel were found to cause a conduction loss as high as 18.5% of







the total power at elevated surface temperatures. Conduction losses were computed for every data point in the investigation of the 1/4 inch cylinder. The conduction losses for the 0.085 inch cylinder were in the vicinity of 10% of the total power. This conduction loss was based on all four support rods.

The equations for the heat loss through conduction were simplified by substituting into equation (11) the appropriate values of the thermal conductivity of the support rods, the cross section area of the support rods, and the distance between the thermocouples on the support rods. The resulting equations are:

$$Q_{D} = 0.0334\Delta\Theta \tag{3}$$

and

$$Q_{D} = 0.0128\Delta\Theta \tag{4}$$

where $\Delta\theta$ is read directly from the appropriate curves of Figures 20 and 21.

Radiation Losses

Radiation losses were determined from the equation:

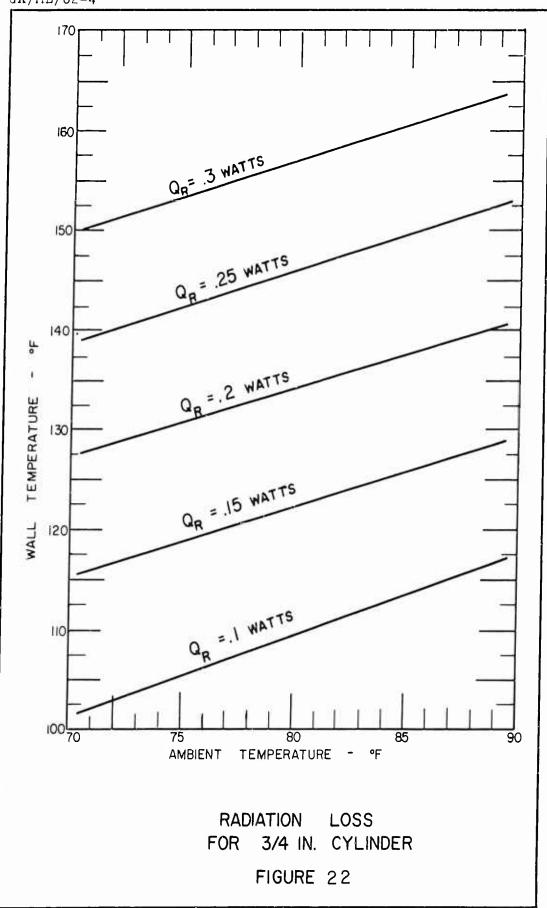
$$Q_{R} = 0.2931 \sigma \in A(T_{rw}^{4} - T_{ra}^{4})$$

$$(5)$$

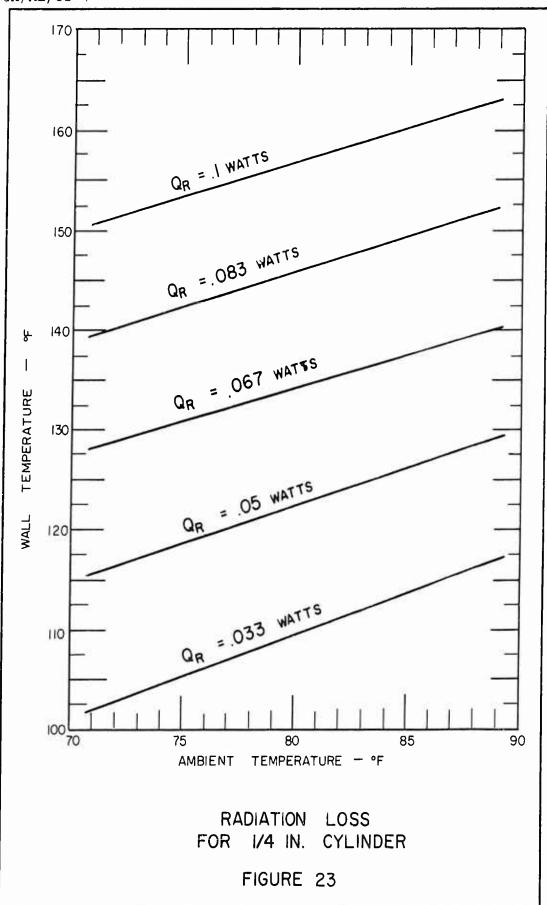
The emissivity of the 3/4 and 1/4 inch cylinders was assumed to be 0.061 (Ref 8:151). For the 0.085 inch cylinder, the emissivity was assumed to be 0.21 (Ref 7:514).

Radiation power loss for the three cylinders was determined for various cylinder wall and ambient temperatures. These results are shown in Figures 22, 23, and 24. From these curves

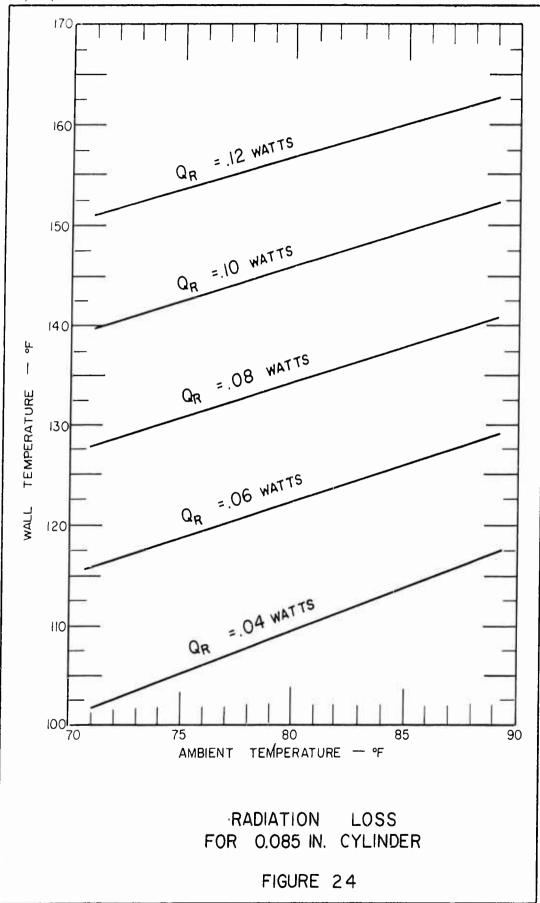












the radiation loss can be determined directly.

The maximum power loss due to radiation was found to be less than $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the total power for the 3/4 inch cylinder. This loss was less than $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ for the 1/4 inch cylinder, and less than 3% for the 0.085 inch cylinder.

Line Losses

Since the heater wires in the 3/4 and 1/4 inch cylinders were internally installed, the voltage was measured through the heater element and the lead wires. This involved determining the heat loss in the lead wires. This heat loss was determined from the equation:

$$Q_{L} = I^{2}R \tag{6}$$

The 3/4 and 0.085 inch cylinders employed the same type lead wires. The resistance of the wires was calculated to be 0.083 ohms for 13 feet of wire (Ref 9:202). At maximum temperature difference the power lost in the lines of the 3/4 inch cylinder was less than 1% of the total power. Therefore, the line loss in the cylinder was considered negligible. Due to the large current required in the 0.085 inch cylinder, the line loss was as high as 40% of the total power. This loss was considered at every data point.

The 1/4 inch cylinder employed a smaller lead wire in order to fit inside the ceramic insulator tube. The resistance for this cable was determined to be 0.123 ohms for 13 feet of wire (Ref 9:202). The maximum power dissipated in this lead

cable was found to be less than 4% of the total power. Line losses were also considered for this cylinder.

The resistance of the wires used above was based on standard conditions. Since the operation temperatures in this investigation exceeded the standard value for temperature by only 100^{-0} F, the change in resistance produced only a 2% difference from the value used.

Meter Losses

Heat loss in the type meters employed was determined from the equation:

$$Q_{\mathbf{M}} = I^2 \mathbf{R} \tag{6}$$

The resistance of the meters was measured with a Wheatstone Bridge. The resistance of the meter was 0.094 ohms for the 3/4 inch cylinder investigation, 0.047 ohms for the 1/4 inch cylinder investigation, and 0.02 ohms for the 0.085 inch cylinder investigation.

The heat loss in the meter of the 3/4 inch cylinder was found to be less than 1% of the total power. Meter losses were assumed negligible in this case. The meter loss in the 1/4 inch cylinder was found to be less than 2% of the total power. The meter loss in the 0.085 inch cylinder was found to be as high as 9% of the total power.

End Losses

The end losses were considered to be negligible in this investigation for all cylinders. This assumption was based

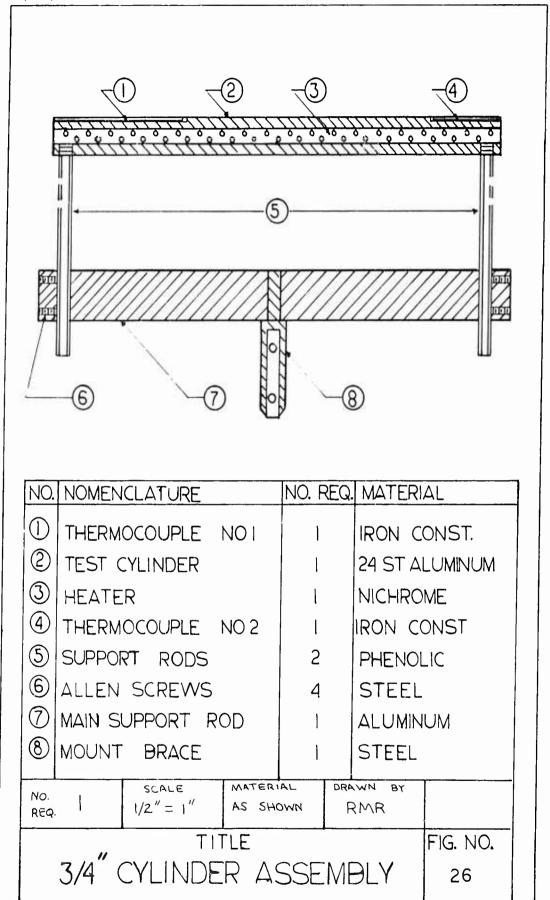
on the comparison of the lateral surface area to the end surface area. In all cases the effective end area was found to be less than 5% of the lateral surface area. Also, the two large cylinders employed end caps of low thermal conductivity.

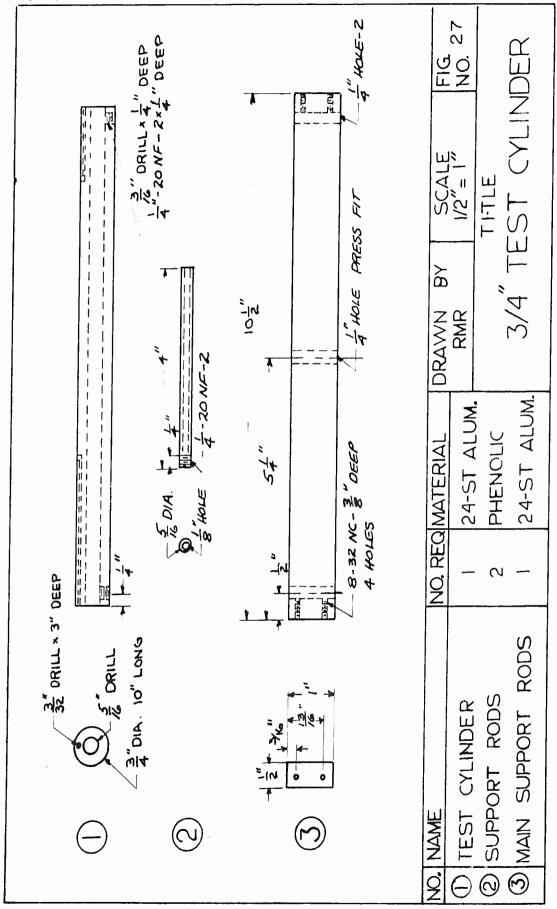
GA/ME/62-4

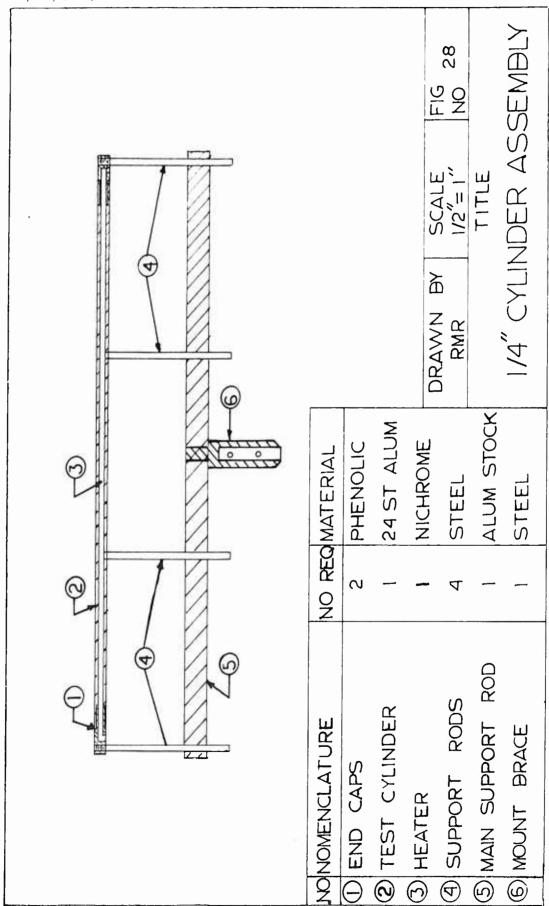
APPENDIX C

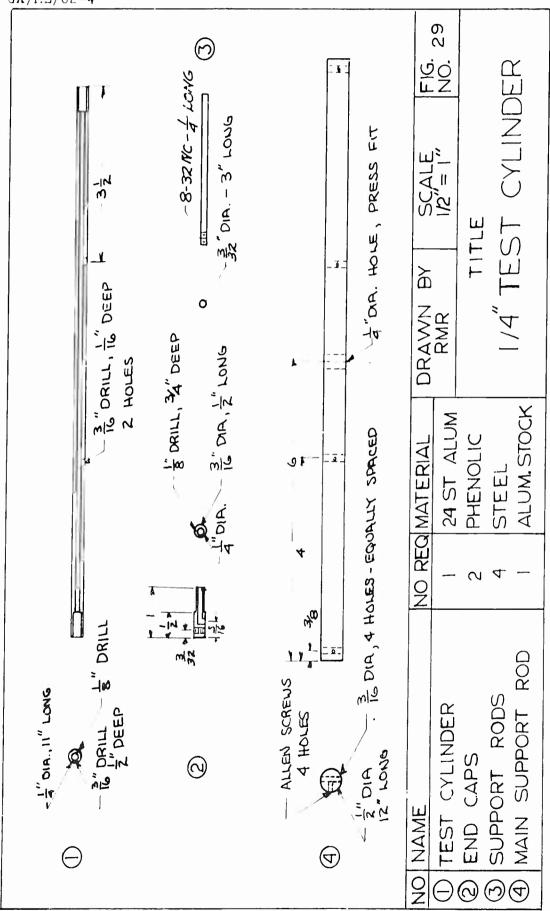
Mechanical Drawings of Cylinder

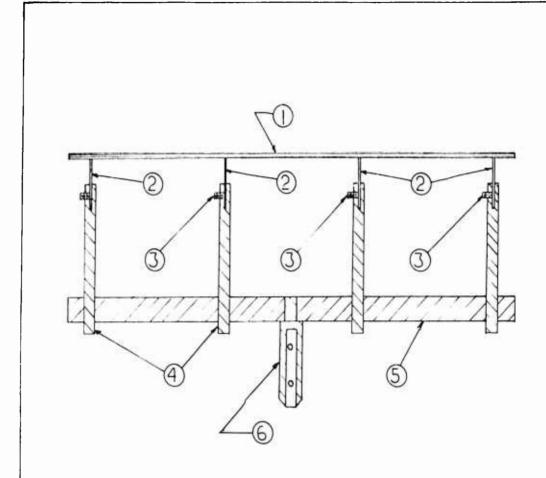
Assemblies and Dimensions



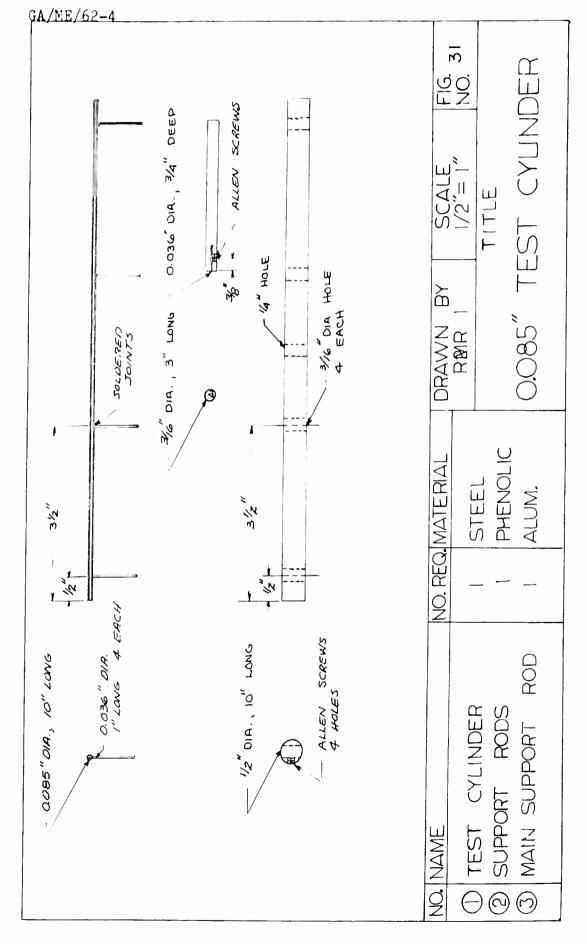








NO.	NOMEN	CLATURE		NO. F	REQ.	MATERI	AL
	TEST	CYLINDER		1		STEEL	
2	FIXED	SUPPORTS	S	4		STEEL	
3	ALLEN	SCREWS		4		STEEL	
4	SUPPO	RT RODS		4		PHENC	LIC
(5)	MAIN S	UPPORT F	ROD	l		ALUM. S	STOCK
6	MOUNT	BRACE		(!	STEEL	
NO.		1/2"= 1"	MATERI AS SHO			WN BY NR	
		TI	ΓLE				FIG. NO.
0.0	085" (YLINDEI	P 49	SSE	ME	3LY	30



APPENDIX D

Sample Calculation

Sample Calculation

The following calculation is based on run #16 of the 1/4 inch cylinder investigation. The recorded values were:

$$T_w = 133.7$$
 °F

$$T_{\rm g} = 89^{\rm O} F$$

E = 4.35 rolts

I = 1.17 amps

H = 0.2066 inches

f = 85 cps

From this data the effect of vibration on the heat transfer rate was computed from the equations:

$$Q_{T} = EI = (4.35)(1.17) = 5.08 \text{ watts}$$

$$Q_{T} = I^2R = (1.17)^2(0.123) = 0.17$$
 watts

$$Q_{M} = I^{2}R = (1.17)^{2}(0.047) = 0.06$$
 watts

$$Q_R = 0.2931 \sigma \epsilon A (T_{rw}^4 - T_{ra}^4) = 0.05 \text{ watts}$$

where the value for Q_R was read from Figure 24 of Appendix B for a T_w of 133.7 $^{\rm O}F$ and T_a of 89 $^{\rm O}F$.

$$Q_{D} = 0.0334 \Delta \theta = 0.0334(13.7) = 0.46 \text{ watts}$$

where $\triangle 9$ was read from Figure 21 of Appendix B for a \triangle T of 44.7 $^{\mathrm{O}}\mathrm{F}$.

$$Q_C = Q_m - Q_L - Q_M - Q_R - Q_D = 4.34$$
 watts

$$Nu = 1.3 Q_C/k_f \Delta T = 1.3(4.34)/(0.01595)(44.7) = 7.91$$

where 1.3 is the conversion factor with the dimensions of BTU/watt hr ft. The value of $\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{f}}$ was determined from tables

GA/ME/62-4

of Eckert and Drake (Ref 7:504).

$$Nu/Pr^{.3} = (7.91)/(0.704)^{.3} = 8.80$$

where the Pr was determined from tables of Eckert and Drake (Ref 7:504).

$$Re_v = 4afd/144 \hat{\gamma}_f = (0.413)(85)(0.25)/144(18.85)10^{-5}$$

= 322

where 4a is the total distance traveled during one cycle and is equivalent to 2H. The 144 is the conversion factor of in. to ft. The value of $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathbf{f}}$ was determined from tables of Eckert and Drake (Ref 7:504).

APPENDIX E

Experimental Data

Table I General Data 1/4 in. Diameter Cylinder

	p A		С) LC	١C	σ	νc	137	١C	0				· α))	ω	9		5	0	0	4	-		Ò	9					267	V
35	7		16,	, (- 14	, –	7	Ġ	4	1	4	4		3.4	0	6	9	2	2	9	9	0	Ō	φ,	9	4	4	2	4	5.33 FR	0
) ,	watts	1	0	0	σ	0	ω	ω	7	7	ω	ω	2	,	4	4.	3	3	7.	0	0	9	9.	6.	9	φ	ω	ω	7.	2.92 2.92	7
	<u></u>	watts	6	9	7			ω	ω	ω	9	6	9	S	2	K.	5	4.	r.	•	4.	5	Č	9.	9.	9.	9	9.	7.	7.	0.46	٧.
	рц	watts	7	Õ	0	, ,	٦		۲.	4	4	۲.	۲.	Õ	0	0	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	0	o.	0	0	0	q.	0	90.0	•
C		watts	॰	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	्	0	0	0	0.05	•
	_ :		۲.	۲.	4	۲.	۲.	٦	4	4	4	4	4	4	۲.	4	4	۲.	7	۲.	۲.	4	4	۲.	۲.	۲.	۲.	4	۲.	۲.	0.12	+
₽4		<u>.</u>	0	3	<u>,</u>	3	ø	2	S.	·-	6	ċ	o	9	φ	м·	ė	4.	5	<u>.</u>	4.	ċ	œ	6	i.	4.	9	<u>'</u>	<u>,</u>	ċ	45.0	J
Total	ısp 2H	ın.	0	.23	.19	.18	.15	0.133	.10	•09	0.	90.	.03	• 26	• 60	• 49	•46	4.	.33	0	. 28	23	.16	1.4	.12	60	0.	•04	.02	•05	0.244	•
Fred	\rightarrow	ou j	0	\vdash	\overline{H}	\vdash	٦	115	Н	\vdash	Н	Н	Н	\dashv	œ					0	٦,	Н,	\dashv	٦,	Н,	٦	4	Н	H		115 84	
0	4	g G	0	਼	•	0	਼	•	਼	0	0	7	4	4	0	0	਼	਼	٠,	9,	9	!		φ,	φ,	φ,	φ	ω	φ,	9,	3.67	•
H		4	·		<u>'</u>	<u>.</u>	·	-	9	9	٥	۰	•	9	6	·	9	<u>ه</u> ر	٠, د	4.	4.	4 1	٠ •	ς •	ئ	٠ •	ر د	د	ů.	٠ ص (0.6/	1
E	3 € O	4	9.	40.	46.	50.	54.	50	61.	64.	99	2.9	67	52.	7.7	22	22	5	444	77.	ο 1 Κ	. 46	45.	44.	4 r 0 t	201	77.	30	5.	949	113.7	\
Run		,	⊣ (N I	Υ	4	<u>ا</u> کیا	91	<u>. </u>	ω (, טע	٦, ۲,	Ţ;	27	73	1, 1,	٦, ۲,	1 P	~ 0 ⊣ r	ρί	٦ ر ر) r	٦ (ا (7 K	V (Л (4 Г	Λ (1 Q	1.7	χ Σ	7 K V O	

Table I (cont.)

${ m Re}_{ m V}$	241 241 282 282 282 114 114 1113 225 225 225 225 225 225 225 225 225 22
Nu	01 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 0
Q_{C} watts	22 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
$Q_{ m D}$ watts	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
O _R watts	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
om watts	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
$Q_{ m L}$ watts	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
OF O	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Total Djgp. in.	00.00 0.00
Freq cyc/ sec	844 866 866 87 87 87 87 88
Or watts	WWW.0000000000000000000000000000000000
E O R F	911.0 911.0 911.0 911.0 801.0 7880.0 87.8 87.8 87.8
ㅎ E O	1116.0 128.7 128.7 1112.7 112.5 112.5 110.7 110.3
Run	WWWWWWWWW44444444444444444444444444444

Table II General Data 0.085 in. Diameter Cylinder

Re v	0888664444444444666844444446668444466666444666666
Nu	1 W G G G G G G G G G G G G G G G G G G
Q _C	10000111110000000111111111111111111111
Q _D watts	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
OR Watts	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
O _M watts	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Q _L watts	
4T OF	$\begin{array}{c} $a4007777889999999999999999999999999999999$
Total Digp. in.	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Freq cyc/ sec	0 1111111 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
QT Watts	444444444
타 O 타 단	88888888888888888888888888888888888888
भ ह भ ह	24444444444444444444444444444444444444
Run	

Table II (cont.)

Re	>	1	200	•	. ω	6	9	9	۷.	4.	္ငံ	د	5 C	· c	c			,	3	, , ,	73.	63.	57.	5.5	, 6	66	4	9	53.5	6
Nu		5.08	4.0	ς α	φ	9	0	0.	41		3	س	•		4		0	ω		9	5	4	φ	9	0	2	.7	4	0	•
5	Watts	1.65	۷ ب	0.4	4	4.	4.	4 r	ů	ָי,	٥	٥	ے ن	40		0	0	0	6	9	3	2	2	2	2	2	۲.	۲.	0	۲,
9	watts	0.11	٠, ٦	• K	100	5	2	ď	'n	ν,	٦,	• 	, L	٠,	-	17.	٦	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	۲.	4	Ġ	0
9°	watts	0.04	•	, ,	<u>ا</u>	ᅼ	0	٠, c	9 0	? (<u>،</u> د	•	•		0	0	0	•	0	0	•	0	0	•	0	•	0	0	0	0
J	watts	0.27	, 0	10	.2	.2	ر.	. v	, (, c	'nc	• 4 C	• 1 C	10	5	2	.2	2	2	5	2	3	2	2	۲,	ς.	2	2	2	.2
0,	watts	1.14	1 ~	4 ~	۲.	۲.	۲,		<u> </u>	. _	۲,	• • α	α (ω	ω	æ	œ	φ	φ	φ	φ,	φ	φ	φ	φ	φ	φ	φ	φ	φ
ΔT	o Fri	27.0	, k	'n	2	_ 	٠ 0	- 0	, , ,	• _	• • α	σ		4	9	0,	2	ů.	9	<u>.</u>	41	Ş	S.	9	°	ζ.	9	۴	4.	φ
	18 2H n.	0.4297	337	.028	101.	.132	.149	/ / T •	מ מ מ	000	700	• • • •	240	.216	.191	.177	.155	.129	.092	.058	.616	67.4.	,559	.545	.418	.360	.304	.277	0.1988	.461
Freq	cyc/ sec	84	84	2	121	2	N C	úΛ	10	ا ر	10	1	\vdash	Н	Ţ	115	Н	\dashv	Н,		84	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	84
o,	watts	3.22	2	C1	2	2	, C	10	0	• 1 K	, k	110	15	3	5	5	5	5	M	3	J.	٩	1	?	5	~	3	M	WI	3
EH B	O 년	85.0	ν Ω	5	'n.	^	'nc		(10) (, K	3	4	4	4.	4.	4.	4.	4 1	710	٠ 1	٠ د د	?	m'ı	5	3	m.	٠ ۱	?
¥.	o Fi	112.0	18	46	45.	44	4	1 K	0	しいん	10	32	73	78	20	24	26	9	51	$\frac{2}{2}$	Ω	0 0) עב	ب درج	04	$\frac{1}{2}$		15	ω	22
Run		31																												

Table III General Data 3/4 in. Diameter Cylinder

Run	T W	El q	O.	Freq	Total Disp.	ΔT	O.	Š	O, R,	o O D	ာ တ	Nu	Rev
	O FJ	0 ټر	watts	cyc/ sec		O [편	watts	watts	watts	watts	Watts		
Н,	138.5	75.0	7.		0	3	0	2	2		4	7	c
N I	37.	4.	7.	3	•076	2	0	2	ίΛ	ı	7	- σ	-
M	30.	S.	7.	Ē	.178	ري م	0	2	?	ı	7	1	٠ رز
4	26.	5	7	130	0.2240	, ,-1	0	10		1	יט י	• C	0 0 0 0
ſΩ.	33.	Š	7	3	.148	φ	0	2	12	1	7	• 1 K	1 <
9	32.	4.	9	3	901.	<u>_</u>	0	2	2	ı	1	, 0	rσ
_	33.	4.	9	3	.100	တ	0	2	CI	ı	16	,	١œ
ω (38	ά	_		0	ċ	0	2	2	ı	, L	! -)
	40.	œ	9	3	055	2	0	2	2	ı	4	7	_
	41.	φ	•	3	.10	• }{	0	2	2	1	4		388
	35.	5	-	Н		5	0	2	S	ı	4	- 00)
	32.	S		Н	.089	9	0	2	C)	ı	4	. (α
	30.	3	-1	112	0.1240	<u>-</u>	0	2	2	ı	4	ı r	306
	27.	3		Н	•163	4.	0	2	۲.	ı	4	0	10
	27.	5	7	Н	.180	4.	0	2	4	1	S	0	1
	23.	3	- 1	\vdash	.308	0	0	CI	۲.	ı	5		· 00
	26.	2	-	\vdash	.233	2	0	2	۲.	ı	4	-	S
	24.	o	۲,		0	4.	0	П	۲.	1	0	9	١
	24.	0	1		.058	4.	0	Ч	4	1	0	9	
	52	0	۲,	Γ	0.0788	3	0	rH	۲.	1	9	7	3
	p T	·	٠,		.150	œ	0	H	4	1	0	r.	
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	46	9	2		0	3	0	2	2	ı	9	9	
	\$4	5	CI	3	.058	2	0	2	2	ı	9	7.	0
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	4.7	ر. •	2	3	.105	٦.	0	2	C1	ı	6	φ	7
N N	46.	5	6.27	130	0.1216		0	2	0.26	1	5.99	9	
	45.	5	~	3	.153	6	0	2		1	0	•	550

Vita

Lieutenant Robert M. Russ was born
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In 1956, he graduated from the Georgia
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